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MOTIVATING MUNICIPAL EMPLOYEES

What are the potential effects of motivation on the level of production of local government employees? What motivation research in private industry seems applicable to the municipal situation? How can supervisors make use of the "human relations" approach to motivation?

More people, more services; more affluent people, better services. This is the kind of mathematics that today shapes the city administrator's job.

A municipal administrator feels inflation keenly. He recognizes that the dollar purchases far less now than it did before and that the trend seems to be fixed in that direction. The situation will get worse before it gets better, he knows. And what about the money he has to work with? Alas, municipal revenue always has been slow to respond to meet inflation. Unlike business concerns, cities cannot easily up their "prices" to adjust to changes in money value.

Manpower is not a simple problem either. While business and industry develop labor-saving devices to increase productivity, the city, over-all, has little opportunity to emulate them. The number of policemen, or health inspectors, or recreation directors is not likely to be reduced by introduction of machines. Sure, some gains will be made. One-man patrol cars, fire-police integration, combining jobs — all of these have worked under certain circumstances. Some observers have predicted that the costs of "personal services" in the city budget will increase about 50 per cent by 1975 for the same number and kinds of employees. Anticipating continued increase in the cost of living and continued reduction of the work week, and seeing little hope for substantial automation, the average administrator finds it hard not to agree with the predictions.

Where, then, will increased productivity come from? Only one place — the employee himself. But it is clear that solving the problems of the future will not be a matter of simply giving the employee more work to do. It is a matter of finding out how the employee can be motivated to do more, and to do it better than before. This is the challenge of motivation that managers face.

This report shows where motivation of the employee fits in management operations. It discusses how employees may be induced to expand their capacities and to feel that they themselves have a part to play in their city's future. It brings together a number of different viewpoints, sometimes contradictory ones. This stems from the fact that few definitive answers have been found to apply to all people in all situations.

Motivation takes on somewhat different dimensions depending on what type of function is involved, and on whether it involves top executives, middle-level supervisors, foreman-level supervisors, or the larger number of employees who are the supervised rather than the supervisors. This report concentrates on the motivation of nonsupervisory employees, those who make up the bulk of the municipal payroll.

Motivation in Government

Little attention has been given to the special problems of motivating governmental employees. Very few governmental jurisdictions have spent money on personnel research. Unfortunately, political scientists and public administration educators have not been much interested in studying personnel problems. It is also unfortunate, but probably true, that city councils and the public would not readily accept the value of such research.

What Is Known? Some generalizations, based in part on observations of local government operations, can be made. In government as in industry, the prevailing employee attitude toward the employer varies from time to time and with respect to different units of the same government at any one time. One city may have employees faced with a realization—a hopeless one for most—that "it is not what you know, but who you know." Another may have people who do a conscientious job in keeping with the importance of that job.

This latter, forward-looking attitude is most prevalent in times of emergencies. Public employees are then highly motivated by the importance of governmental goals. During such periods government tends to attract people with a high degree of self-motivation. On the other hand, when prevailing public attitudes tend to depreciate the value of governmental service, few such people are attracted. The goals government sets for itself tend to be too unexciting to arouse enthusiasm.

Thus, motivation in government is easier when the mission is urgent and important. It is more difficult when the job is unglamorous, is less known to the public. This kind of job tends to attract and hold people who are security conscious, those more apt to be satisfied with adequate rather than superior performance.

Beyond this, it is possible that there are many unique forces affecting motivation in government. But until some definitive work is done in this area, it is necessary to apply the results of industrial research. It has been observed:

The main lines of research results and concurrent trends in managerial practices... stem mainly from private business and industry rather than from the public service even though some of the research has been supported by public funds with the view toward its general public value. The question of transferability of such research findings and resulting managerial principles to the public service is still an open one, although there still seems that there should be no reasons why the main findings should not be applicable.¹

Private Research. The managerial implications of motivation have undergone significant change over the years, mostly as a result of formal and informal research. A brief historical summary may be in order.

Back a hundred years ago, it was believed to be sufficient to "give a man a job to do and the tools to do it." But as the need to increase the level of productivity resulted in the downgrading of old individual skills, incentives took the form of pay and fringe benefits. More pay and more benefits meant more production, more profits. "Piece work" was the simplest form of this incentive. Now the idea was stated, "give a man work to do and pay him what he's worth." Still later there was a phase in which the working environment received the lion's share of attention. "Give a fellow or girl a nice place to work in, and production will increase."

Continuing research, particularly in the past three decades, has brought about a re-evaluation of incentives as they affect motivation. The movement has been toward nonfinancial incentives which embrace what has been called a "human relations" approach. Here the emphasis falls on democratic procedures. "Keep him informed, let him in on the decisions affecting him, give him responsibility to carry out the decisions. Production will increase, and he'll be happier, too."

Changing Attitudes in Business and Industry. Recent literature on motivation—its revealing a rapid growth of research—points up weaknesses in the old incentive system and the phenomenal success achieved by the more subtle and sophisticated system of motivation and leadership. Training programs in industry based on the findings of this research have increased production as high as 20 per cent.

This research has shown that a man's inner workings can incite thought and induce action. Whether these inner springs are strong or weak is one of the main clues indicating whether he will be a success or failure, and whether the group in which he functions will achieve its purposes. People must be motivated by a desire to serve, but this desire—it has been clearly shown—is a product of complex and logically related social, professional, vocational, psychological, educational, technological, and human forces operating in and upon the "inner man."

¹Rensis Linkert and Stanley E. Seashore. "Motivation and Morale in the Public Service," *Public Personnel Review*, October, 1956, pp. 273-74.

Consideration of motivation by those who are not specialists in psychology is likely to be colored, to some degree, by a comparatively recent and well-read book, *The Hidden Persuaders*, by Vance Packard.² He showed how motivational research is being used to influence people's buying habits and their political expression. This book leaves some readers with a distaste for the whole business of motivation, again because of the heavy connotation of manipulation.

Of longer standing, perhaps, is the attitude among some people in supervisory positions that motivation is simply pressure on the subordinate to conform to the wishes of management or the dictates of the boss. It involves mental force imposed by the superior and fear of punishment on the part of the subordinate. There is no doubt that this kind of motivation has been used.

How Good Is It? Manipulation such as this is unrealistic in a work situation. It has been demonstrated to be wasteful of the human resources needed to do the best possible job. It imposes conformity, which in turn conflicts with creativity and curiosity. It ignores the uniqueness of the individual and his contribution to the job. It sees achievement or failure solely in terms of production standards *predetermined from above*. "Yes men" are but one unhappy result. Administrative simplicity results, but the more substantial practices of good management are ignored, perhaps because they are more complex.

Defining Motivation. For purposes of this report motivation will include those environmental and personal conditions which — when changed properly — will exert a positive influence on the employee. This definition is framed by recognition of the complex leader-follower relationship inherent in most municipal jobs.

This definition excludes the gimmick type of manipulation discussed by Packard. It is the manipulator who gives the appearance of letting the subordinate participate, without letting him have meaningful participation. It is the manipulator who communicates at, not with, the subordinate. It is the manipulator who develops the artificial subordinate, a subordinate who in the end will mystify rather than satisfy the superior.

It is the motivator--not the manipulator--who develops the self-realized subordinate--one who will work in harmony with others to get the job done.

Motivation then is positive; manipulation is negative. Motivation relates the means to the end. Manipulation stresses means, sometimes to the exclusions of goals. More specifically, "motivation" is a technical term used by social scientists and educators to refer to a pattern of behavior which individuals develop while attaining their life goals or in satisfying their social and physical needs. There are four constructive stages in this process:

1. The individual tries to satisfy a desire or need for something, either material or spiritual.
2. He attains satisfaction or fulfillment; his need or desire is met.
3. He develops new needs, usually of a higher kind. The environment has changed, or his evaluation of his needs has shifted to a new emphasis, or he simply is aware of new possibilities.
4. As a result, his desires are broadened.

This is a rather abstract identification of the elements in the process, but it serves to demonstrate how vulnerable the individual's motivational impulses are. For example, failure to move from the first stage to the second stage means frustration for the individual. Without satisfaction of his important (by his own terms) needs and desires, the individual is likely to reframe his needs and desires on new, and sometimes irrational bases. In terms of job, to cite another example, motivation does not involve simply better working conditions, a raise in pay, more retirement benefits. Rather, satisfactions arise out of the job itself, and frequently these have more influence on the quantity and quality of the work than do the more identifiable factors of pay and physical work environment. Again, referring to the four steps above, it is easy to see that the manager's task is to identify the things that people want and how they try to achieve them. It is part of his job to find out what each man's needs and motives are, why they exist, how they arose, and which of them can be satisfied--with benefit to both the individual and the city.

²Vance Packard. *The Hidden Persuaders* (New York: David McKay Co., Inc., 1957).

Signs of Good Motivation. What has been said thus far may sound a little academic to those managers who, as a rule, do not think they act to motivate. But a list of demonstrable signs of good motivation will put them in more familiar territory.

You have a good motivational environment when the employee is interested in his job and feels the job is important; when he feels he is not kept in the dark about things vital to him; when he believes his supervisor is considerate of him as a person. At another level, the signs of good motivation are present when there is an active and effective teamwork--the job is done efficiently, with a certain amount of creativity; when human relations are harmonious; when there is opportunity for the individual to develop his skills both informally or through a personnel development program; when there is strong leadership and supervision, involving effective use of all available intelligence, energy, and skill. All this should add up to the more self-evident signs: higher satisfactions for the individual; higher production for the city.

Some Other Definitions. Two other words should be defined before we discuss more specific aspects of motivation.

1. Motives. These are the internal drives which prompt the individual's actions. Motives may be conscious, clear-cut, and well-known by the person. But often the actions stem from a deeper desire which the person may not be aware of, does not reveal to others. This makes the manager's task of finding out what makes that person "tick" much more complicated than searching for expressed motives.

2. Incentives. These are external influences on the individual. They may be negative, as in penalties or restriction of privileges. Positive incentives may be rewards, such as a pay raise. But they also include intangibles such as the feeling of achievement that comes from successful participation. Incentives do not directly cause behavior, but they do serve to change attitudes. When effective, they help to redirect effort, modify behavior, or change action in ways that improve job performance.

Motives and incentives together shape performance and work output. They interact on each other. For example, if the individual's predominant motive is security, his rate of pay, retirement income, and fringe medical or insurance benefits, all are specific incentives attracting and holding him to the job. It should be remembered, however, that behavior is rarely the result of a single motive.

Motivation of the Individual

The supervisor must get to know the employees better. There can be no real attempt to properly motivate people without such knowledge. Incentives created in a vacuum are rarely successful in achieving proper motivation.

Getting To Know You. There are many ways to find out what employees are thinking. Employee suggestions, either those made formally through a suggestion system or informally, man-to-man, often will indicate their underlying concerns. An easy, personal relationship in which the subordinate feels free to comment or offer opinions is the best atmosphere for this kind of exchange. Supervisors should not hesitate to ask employees what they think, if the question can be asked without putting them "on the spot."

Research indicates that employees are largely interested in their relationship with the organization. Often, this extends well beyond the limits of their own "place." They want to know all the relevant policies that affect their jobs. They want to have an idea of what the outlook is for their employer. They want to know what is expected of them (few job descriptions furnish the whole answer). They need to know how their job fits into the organization.

The problem of two-way communication between supervisor and subordinate is indeed a difficult one, one easily and adversely affected by even the slightest breakdown. Many managers recognize, regretfully, that they are more likely to get a straight story about employee motives and the success or failure of incentives from an employee who is leaving. Good managers make the best of the situation by evaluating the opinions of the departing employees and modifying

programs where conditions seem to indicate. However, a few managers appear to believe that the words of the departing always are purely "sour grapes."

Recognize Differences. It is all too easy to fall into the trap of thinking that the motives of different people are the same, and that a given incentive will bring the same response from all. Yet it is clear that what may serve as a strong incentive for one person may leave another unaffected. Even the same person's motivation will change from one day to the next. An assignment that rewards one person may be punishment for another.

Each man considers himself to be different, even though he sees all others as being alike. It is necessary to study the man as a whole, and to find out what he wants from a job and what he thinks will provide maximum satisfaction in his work. This is a constant process. The foot-loose young man becomes mature, he marries and has new responsibilities which shape his viewpoint toward his job. What satisfied him at 18 may not be satisfactory at 25. The girl who begins her clerical job as an interim occupation in anticipation of marriage turns it into a career if time passes and she does not marry.

It is easy to overlook potential incentives because we do not know the subordinate's particular needs. Supervisors must be sensitive to differences between people, if they are to succeed more fully in dealing with people as individuals. This is particularly true when the organization grows large and supervisory responsibilities increase. Here, all too frequently, there is little time to learn about the individual.

This may sound like a large order, and it is probably impossible to learn everything about each employee — what he likes and dislikes about his job and how strongly these feelings are held. However, it is not necessary to learn everything. While differences must be recognized, it nevertheless is true that people *are* alike in many ways. This means that a substantial number of employees will respond to incentives treated on a group basis.

The "Problem" Employee. Many of the most trying problems for supervisors involve those employees who do not respond within the group framework. It is this type of person who must receive greater attention from the supervisor; it is here that knowledge of the individual must go deeper. While working with such people may be difficult, it usually is not without value for the supervisor. It gives the sensitive supervisor understanding and insight that helps him deal more effectively with others. Further, it is an unpleasant experience when one of his subordinates disappoints him (this feeling is unavoidable in the situation), and he needs to know more of the feelings and needs of the subordinate in order to feel less disturbed himself. Thus, one of the rewards of supervisors who know their subordinates is a more satisfactory personal work experience.

When there is a special problem the supervisor needs to ask, "Why is this person making or confronting difficulties? What is unique about his personal situation or temperament? Has this any bearing on the problem at hand? What demand is the work situation making on him that he is unable to meet?"

When the supervisor knows his subordinates as individuals he is able to help them solve their problems. He can often present an objective point of view to help them put a more accurate evaluation upon the situation and perhaps point out several solutions to choose from. The supervisor, however, should not take upon himself the responsibility of solving the subordinates' problems. He can point out solutions, but the person who has to live with the solution must make the choice.

From the Supervisor's Standpoint

One of the most famous studies of environmental and fringe benefits and their effect on production was undertaken in the late 1920's at the Hawthorne Plant of Western Electric Corporation near Chicago.³ Using test and control groups, the researchers sought to find out whether increased light in the work area would increase production. Up went the lights, and up went production.

³See Fritz J. Roethlisberger and William J. Dickson, *Management and the Worker* (Cambridge, Massachusetts: Harvard University Press, 1939); Fritz J. Roethlisberger, *Management and Morale*, (Harvard, 1941); Henry A. Landsberger, *Hawthorne Revisited* (Ithaca, New York: Cornell University Press, 1958); Elton Mayo, *Human Problems in an Industrial Civilization* (Harvard, 1933); and Elton Mayo, *Social Problems of an Industrial Civilization* (Harvard, 1945).

As a check, the tests also were designed to determine whether a reduction in available light would cause a drop in production. They even turned the light down to about the level of moonlight. Down went the lights, but production still went up! This put a severe strain on the environmental theories.

A second test involved the addition and withdrawal of benefits such as rest periods, free lunches, and longer lunch hours. Up went the benefits, up went production; down went the benefits, but production stayed up.

The answer, it was found, was that the production gains resulted from the fact that the people in both the test and control groups liked the attention they were getting. They no longer felt they were small parts of a huge industrial machine. They felt important, and they were having fun besides.

This influence of group interaction was underscored by later studies--and the human relations approach was under way. One of these, involving piecework production-line employees of the Harwood Manufacturing Company, revealed that even the incentive for greater pay could not overcome group pressures to approximate a group set production norm.⁴ Both those who produced higher and lower than the norm were affected. Each individual had a norm, but it had no relation to his ability to produce. Rather, it was related to his status within the informal group organization.

Many other specific conclusions have resulted from this research. We are not concerned so much here with these results as with the demands they impose on supervisory level employees. At one time, a foreman was a "pusher." Now he became, in a real sense, a leader in which his leadership ability would be reflected in how his subordinates were motivated.

Stand on Firm Ground. It would be a lot easier to be a supervisor or executive if one could be free of his own motives. There are few such men who do not have to report to someone else. A supervisor under pressure from his superior may be more discipline-conscious, without concern for the effect of discipline on production, simply because he desires the approval of his boss. Here his own motives have gotten tangled with those of his subordinates, lost in the maze that results in the inability to distinguish between long-term and short-term goals. People who seek to change others often undertake the job without thinking about their own goals or their own drives.

The organizational structure puts pressure on the superior to get the short-term problems solved. The supervisor feels pressure from both above and below. He cannot ignore his own tensions and keep his eye fixed on the long-term effort. But he can keep his head clear if he recognizes the effect of his own motives. It will help him to perform a vital job—that is, to determine and evaluate his own reasons before putting a particular change into effect.

Other Major Findings. Several studies have concluded, in general, that democratic and "people-centered" leadership can create effective motivation. Such leadership operates best in a favorable institutional climate.

Among the studies made have been those at the Prudential Life Insurance Company home office at Newark, New Jersey, which compared high-production supervisors with low-production supervisors.⁵ The former tended to: (1) refrain from close supervision; (2) be employee-centered rather than production-centered; and (3) devote more time to supervisory activities than to personnel production.

These Prudential studies, conducted by the University of Michigan, were later supported by other data collected elsewhere. These underscored additional factors found prevalent among high production supervisors at Prudential: high production supervisors felt more secure in their relationships with their own superiors; they kept employees better informed; and they had more pride in their work group.

⁴See Alfred J. Marrow, *Making Management Human* (New York: McGraw-Hill Book Co., 1957); Lester Coch and John R. P. French, Jr., "Overcoming Resistance to Change," *Human Relations*, Vol. I, No. 4, 1948.

⁵See Daniel Katz, Nathan Jacoby, and Nancy C. Morse, *Productivity, Supervision and Morale* (Ann Arbor, Michigan: Survey Research Center, University of Michigan, 1950, Part I); Rensis Likert, "Motivational Dimension of Administration," in *America's Manpower Crisis* (Chicago: Public Administration Service, 1952).

It is interesting to note also what the supervisors said about themselves. They felt they had adequate authority to make decisions. They said their employees did good work, even though supervision was general rather than close. They had a favorable attitude toward paper work. They had confidence in their organization and received reports from above. They tended to deprecate seniority and believed in merit evaluation of their employees.

It was found that the members of the effective work group had pride in the group and were more likely to become angry at a fellow worker who did not do a good job. In the less effective groups there was more hostility toward each other, even to the point of not speaking.

Motivating Influences

The way in which a supervisor approaches the problems of motivation will depend in large part on his own attitudes toward people and their nature. Company attitudes, in the institutional sense, also play a part. Therefore, if the supervisor believes, or the institution forces him to believe, that men are essentially uncooperative; that they are sloppy, accident-prone, untidy; that they will do their work only if they are "made" to — then negative approaches will be used. If, on the other hand, the supervisor or his institution has an optimistic view of man's nature--that is, sees people as essentially cooperative, as creators of their environment, and as being capable of self-direction--then positive steps will be taken. One observer has pointed out that over the years the pessimistic view has underlaid the great bulk of executive activity. Apparently, it "has not proven universally capable of dealing effectively with the realities of human interaction."⁶

What then are the usual motivating influences that are available to the supervisor?

Negative. The usual negative threats are fear, punishment, and tension. Here are a few comments about each.

1. Fear. Fear and threats are likely to result in rather timid employees, unwilling and unable to react to the situation as it is. This avoidance is expressed in various ways, and they are not always logical. Above all they produce cautiousness, rather than a positive exploration of new possibilities.

This device is in fairly common use. Some supervisors, it is fair to say, know of no other device. Without their big stick they would have to use their wits. They are "pushers," not leaders. They are unwilling to avoid immediate threats in their dealings with subordinates. They are not eager to find out where the roadblocks are and to help the subordinates remove them. It is difficult to learn how to possess power and behave as though you do not. But supervisors often must do so if they are to be effective.

2. Punishment. This can take many forms. It is invoked because of a person's failures in the eyes of his superiors. It tends to lose its intended effect under certain circumstances. For example, the invocation of punishment by an aroused supervisor, or one who acts arbitrarily, is likely to cause other employees to question the motives of the person inflicting it. The person receiving punishment (and possibly others) is likely to think the punishment unfair if he has never had a clear understanding of just what is acceptable behavior.

There is an old joke about the company president who came into a mailroom, saw a boy standing around doing nothing, told him to go home, and paid him his wages on the spot — only to find out later that the youth was a messenger delivering a package. This points up the principle that punishment can be applied only when the supervisor or the organization has the control necessary to invoke a penalty.

3. Tension. Pressure and tension need not necessarily be bad, either in terms of its effects on output or on the relationships within the organization. Indeed, Dean Harlan Cleveland has noted that "...the administrator's task is not to make peace among the contending experts but to make sure there is enough tension among them to produce out of their vigorous advocacy a solution to each problem...."⁷ The same may be said of supervisors who, while they may not be dealing with

⁶ Michael G. Blansfield. "The Challenge of Executive Appraisal," *Advanced Management*, April, 1960, p. 22.

⁷ Harlan G. Cleveland. "Education for Public Complexity," *Public Management*, December, 1959, p. 283.

experts in the usual sense, are working with people who believe, rightly or wrongly, that they know their own jobs best.

Positive. The list of positive influences is somewhat longer.

1. Recognition. This may be a simple pat on the back, a few words, or more formal awards. It has been demonstrated that recognition of individual and group achievements is effective.

2. Job Security. This is the converse of fear. A person who knows he has job security can take pride in this fact. There is, of course, the danger that job security can lead to a rest on the oars.

3. Opportunity for Advancement. The organization which uses the expanding talents of its employees will do much to shape their positive drives. Conversely, inability to move upward at a reasonable pace, in keeping with the individual's own view of his ability, can be detrimental to the organization (when the individual has appraised himself and his organization fairly correctly).

4. Effective Leadership. More will be said on this point later. But it would seem to apply most particularly, in the context of this section, to two points: freedom of the subordinate from arbitrary action on the part of the supervisor; and assignment to a meaningful task out of which the employee can draw his own satisfactions.

5. Fair Wages. Pay must be reasonably adequate. Again the adequacy must be determined by many factors, quite apart from the amount offered. (The lack of research on motivation of government employment is keenly felt here. If, as private research shows, status is important in determining satisfaction, do government employees suffer from a feeling of "second class status" when they receive less pay than those with equal responsibilities in business and industry?)

6. A Part To Play. This is more than just having a job to do. It means, essentially, having a voice on matters affecting himself *before* the important decisions are made.

7. People He Likes To Work with. This means not just congenial associates but people whom he respects as individuals and for the part they play in accomplishing the over-all goals of the organization.

Experience has shown that a balance is needed between the technically reasonable and the humanly reasonable. That is, don't overemphasize efficient practices of planning, improvement of work performance, and procedures on the one hand, or employee evaluation and development, discipline, and motivation on the other.

All in all, the major motivation for an employee should arise out of job performance--his own job performance that satisfies him and satisfies you, his supervisor.

Morale. All of these influences affect morale. Morale is not the same thing as motivation. Morale, whether high or low, is an end product which, in turn, affects those things which make it. If we liken an organization to a rocket, morale is thrust. To hit its target the rocket must first work to overcome inertia; later, thrust keeps it going even after the power stages have been dropped off. Low morale is difficult to overcome; high morale helps keep you moving.

But what is morale? Here's what Webster's says:

Prevailing mood and spirit conducive to willing and dependable performance, steady self-control, and courageous, determined conduct despite danger and privations, based upon a conviction of being in the right and on the way to success and upon faith in the cause or program and in the leadership, usually connoting, especially when qualified by the adjective high, a confident, aggressive, resolute, often buoyant spirit of wholehearted co-operation in a common effort, often attended particularly by zeal, self-sacrifice, or indomitableness.⁸

Few supervisors have the self-sacrificing subordinates of this type. Most believe they have high morale when the employees willingly observe the rules of conduct, are satisfied with existing conditions, are careful about company property and equipment, have loyalty and respect for the organization, work together fairly well, and do their jobs cheerfully.

⁸ Webster's New Collegiate Dictionary (Springfield, Massachusetts: G. & C. Merriam Co., 1951).

They know too that they have a serious problem when employees are sloppy in their work, are getting to work, are always complaining or criticizing, and just "don't give a damn."

There is a big temptation to equate high morale with high production. Actually, studies have demonstrated that it is possible to have either without the other. High production and low morale seem to combine when management places too great an emphasis on limited activity and rigid control of the individual. Minimum delegation of authority and responsibility, management concentration "production," overspecialization of the employee and oversimplification of the job--these are the things that lower morale.

Piece work and similar wage incentive systems also have shown they can get results but lower morale. Where the pace of the work tends to be governed by factors beyond the control of the employee, morale tends to be low. Illustrations are easier to find in the industrial area, as in the case where a worker has to keep up with a moving belt on a production line. But the principle may be just as valid in government where the pace-setting forces are less visible.

Of course, the tendency is to say, as long as production is high what's the difference whether the employee has high morale? The picture will appear different, of course, when the production costs are amended to include costs of labor turnover, absenteeism, tardiness, spoilage, and the like.

Sometimes a company has high morale and low production. Those critics of the "human relations" approach to management have said that efforts to keep everybody happy have worked to the detriment of production. The organization's production goals apparently were not brought into balance with the employees' goals of individual development and job satisfaction.

Motivation and Human Relations

Four types of motivation, in human relations terms, have been listed by Daniel Katz.⁹ He points out that they differ in their meaning for the individual and involve different principles in their application. In this section we will list them and point up, in a general way, the kinds of motivational patterns associated with each.

The Utilitarian Function. Here the view is that people strive to obtain rewards from their environment and seek to reduce punishment.

1. Rewards offered to satisfy a utilitarian need must be satisfying to the individual. For example, recognition of group effort will not necessarily increase productive effort because the rewards do not recognize differences in performance by members of the group.
2. Rewards must be rewards. That is, they must be worth working for. Extra incentive pay, for example, must be sufficient to induce the extra work. Further, the gains arising from extra performance may not be worth the scorn of fellow workers who do not perform as well.
3. The person applying punishment must have control over the working environment, or it will be ineffective.
4. Punishment without clear-cut guides for proper employee behavior is likely to be ineffective.
5. Intense or arbitrary punishment tends to produce resistance or avoidance of the total situation.
6. Reward is simpler than punishment, and in some situations it is preferred.
7. Rewards and punishments must be supported by the individual's own group. That is, his group must believe he deserves them.

The Ego-Defensive Function. This is the situation in which the person protects himself by hiding the truth about himself or about the realities of the world. He denies or distorts the

⁹This section is based on a lecture delivered by Daniel Katz of the University of Michigan at the first Advanced Management Training Program, sponsored by the International City Managers' Association and the University of Chicago, in Chicago in May, 1960.

situation and becomes worried about unimportant things. He sees in others the unacceptable impulses that he himself possesses.

1. In this situation, punishment is of little value. However, ego-building rewards make the person more receptive to influence.
2. Similarly, removal of frustrating conditions makes him less defensive.
3. The opportunity to voice his feelings makes him less resistant to suggestion.
4. His development of some self-insight into his own motivations makes him less defensive.

The Value-Expressive Function. Some people have primary need for self-expression, self-determination, and self-identity. People derive satisfactions from expressing attitudes and behavior appropriate to their personal values and their self-concepts. Opportunities to express one's talents and ability are highly motivating for almost all people.

1. Opportunities to make decisions about one's work are highly motivating.
2. Acceptance or rejection of ideas will be based on the individual's evaluation of how the necessary behavior will affect his own self-image.
3. The individual's associates will have unusual power in determining whether the image or self-identity is a valid one.
4. Changing the central values and the self-concept of the person (as in brainwashing) requires almost complete control over all environmental forces.

The Knowledge Function. People need to understand their immediate world, and they seek to give meaning to what goes on about them. They are upset by ambiguity and lack of information.

1. Any change affecting the personal environment of the individual creates ambiguity for him unless he is given adequate information about it.
2. Communication must have a motivational function; much of the time it has merely been a control function.
3. The process of absorbing information grows more effective as it comes closer to sensory experience.
4. Different people need to know different amounts. Most need to know only those things concerning their immediate problems; a few need to know about things beyond their own problems.

These findings create a number of problems. First of all, most organizational practices result in uniformity, yet people have differing motivational needs. In this context, what principles of group participation can be utilized for the maximum motivation?

In assessing existing motivation structures it becomes necessary to find out the existing needs and desires of people in order to maintain or change their behavior. The process of identifying these needs is critical if the valid human relations principles are to be applied.

Organization as a Motivating Force

The discussion thus far has concentrated on the individual's relations with his supervisor. We now turn to the organization as an influence on motivation.

What Is Organization? This is most commonly thought of as formal structure. Typically this structure takes the shape of a pyramid, with a few persons directing from the top, and considerably more people at the operating levels.

But within most formal organizations there also are informal organizations. These are the complex and often highly personal interrelationships among individuals within a group. The organization is more visible when it develops an identity (a "clique"), but mostly its subtle effects are there without the participants realizing it.

Formal Organization. A primary result of organization (in terms of motivation) is competition advancement. First of all, "reaching the top" is encouraged. Early training orientates us that frequently the people at higher levels prod and assist those below to advance themselves.

Thus, with the narrowing structure at the top and the individual drive from below, there is competition. However, this competition varies from one formal organization to another. For example, when the organization is growing rapidly, there are more opportunities for more people. As the growth rate declines competition grows more intense.

Yet there are competent people who do not want to climb, or whose desires along this line are more modest. They are more likely to feel at home in a static organization than one which is faced with new challenges.

Studies have shown that there are four aspects of organizational structure--that is, the way in which the work is divided--which have an effect on motivation.

1. Dispersal of Authority. Physical decentralization is less important here than delegation of authority. With modern instantaneous communications, dispersal does not necessarily mean that individual, self-contained, self-operating units are set up. The real key is whether the decisions are made at a relatively low level in a centralized organization.

Enough evidence is available to show that when delegation is properly used, employees are strongly motivated. We know that when the employees are locked in a tightly controlled system, when they are told precisely everything they are to do and how to do it, when they have little leeway in making their own decisions, then there is little to motivate the employees to do their jobs better. Of course, improper delegation may be worse than no delegation. But if the subordinate is properly trained and has a positive, explorative attitude, then he will be able to handle what is routinely expected of him and the "extra" tasks that serve to broaden his horizons and experience.

A policy of decentralized authority is good for getting supervisors to work more effectively toward the goal of greater productivity. It also means that if the supervisor is an accepted member of the work group (including his subordinates), then the entire work group benefits. It brings the whole group closer to the people who control their organizational fate. It increases competition among groups and lessens it among individuals. As it makes the supervisors more independent, it increases the independence and autonomy of many others.

At the operating level, decisions must remain officially the decisions of the supervisor. But in practice, modified group decisions have been used increasingly in industrial organization.

2. Purpose-Type Organization. This type of formal organization is based upon what the organization and its individual units are attempting to achieve. The groupings are orientated toward ends. It differs from process-type structure which groups common functions according to how work is done rather than what they are designed to achieve.

Purpose-type organization tends to motivate department heads and supervisors to work harder. It also permits many small units each having some special identity within a larger framework. What this means is that the individual units of a large organization can have some of the motivational advantages normally prevalent only in small organizations. This is another kind of decentralization.

3. Span of Control. A large span of control tends to have a good effect on motivation because it challenges subordinates to be self-reliant. They must take the initiative.

Recent studies have tended to undercut the theory that there is an optimum of about five or six subordinates per supervisor, at least in terms of motivation. A secondary result of larger spans of control is the reduction of the number of intermediate levels, bringing the chief executive closer to the work level. That is, the pyramid is flattened out somewhat. The loss of advancement opportunities must be counterbalanced, of course, by real gains in communication--that is, the big boss must be more of a human being and less remote in the eyes of the employees.

4. Job Enlargement. The assembly line concept was found to inhibit motivation. Lately, we have seen more and more instances where job enlargement--that is, a redesigning process

in which employees obtain more and greater variety of tasks to perform — has renewed the interest of the employee. The evidence: higher production, less job turnover, less absenteeism, fewer grievances.

In government, the enlargement of a job may be a method by which the assignment is freed from a rigid set of rules and responsibilities (these usually are limitations, not incentives). The employee is then able to affect the nature and importance of his job simply by his own ability and capacity to grow in that job.

Several other organizational influences may be mentioned briefly. An organization structure that opens up avenues for advancement rather than creates dead-end jobs will affect motivation. A structure emphasizing teamwork rather than isolated jobs tends to be more satisfactory for most people than one made up of isolated jobs. A structure that enables a group to see how much and how well it produces (perhaps in competition with other groups) motivates by accentuating accomplishment.

Change in formal organizational structure should be approached cautiously. Too frequent changes can confuse employees and reduce motivation.

There is, in business and industry at least, something of a gradual trend toward further decentralization, greater use of purpose-type structure, less rigidity and span of control, and more widespread attempts at job enlargement.

Informal Organization. Organizational charts show nothing about social groupings. Yet we all know they exist within more formal organizational structures. As the researchers discovered at Western Electric's Hawthorne plant, social groups and social needs have at least as much to do with productivity as environmental factors such as lighting conditions. These informal structures may be quite elaborate, with factors like "status" and "power" affecting organizational behavior.

If we think of the job as a social role for a person to fill, we can see how and when a particular role will or will not work out for a particular individual. A job description does not tell us about the kinds of pressures a man will face on his job, such as a bookkeeper's. But if his job requires an ability to be respected by numerous people who come into contact with him, then a person with a sour disposition is not the man for the job, regardless of how well he keeps books.

One type of informal organization that frequently springs up is one designed to "short-cut" the formal organization. Employee A asks the help of Employee B in another department when the rules say that A's supervisor should first ask B's supervisor if it is okay. Perhaps it takes less time to get the job done without fooling with the rules of organizational coordination. What has happened, of course, is that the employees have decentralized themselves. Like most things found in motivation, this may have either beneficial or adverse effects, depending on the result. But employees tend to develop a sixth sense for the occasions when it is possible to do this without upsetting management — other than the "stickler" for the rules.

Policies and Motivation

While the organization structure, it is seen, can create situations in which it is relatively easy to motivate employees, of somewhat greater importance are the policies that directly affect employees as individuals. This section deals with major policy areas which have had a demonstrated sensitivity in the motivation process.

Personnel Selection. There are some who hold that proper selection of employees—that is, getting the ones who are self-motivated—is the key to the whole problem. Post-selection action, they hold, is of little use; the manager can do little more than encourage self-motivation rather than inhibit it. Whether this limited view holds true or not, there is no minimizing the importance of the selection process.

It is clear that external conditions have considerable influence on the ability of government to get the kind of people it needs. The more important ones are the prestige of government service at the time, general economic conditions (it is easier to obtain highly qualified persons during periods

of recession or depression), and general social values as expressed in such terms as the meaning of "success," the pressure for conformity, and importance of career in relation to family and community responsibility.

The purpose of selection, of course, is to get the right man for the job. This means first that the person selected must be qualified and have a temperament suitable to the job. It seems reasonable to expect that a qualified person will be more likely to do a good job and take pride in his work. An unqualified one will likely feel insecure because he is attempting to accomplish something beyond his capacities. On the other hand, selection should avoid placing an overly qualified person in a job he will find boring, unchallenging, and lacking in demand. He too will become frustrated.

Merit System. The merit system had as its original purpose the elimination of the evils of the spoils system. It appears to have little effect on the motivation of the individual employee. However, it is part of a basic foundation for establishing a motivating policy.

This operates to some degree through the programs designed to increase the employee's abilities and thus establish qualifications for advancement within the merit system. It is easy to see how personnel development programs, effective utilization of personnel, personnel counseling, and training programs will operate in this direction.

Training. Two facts shape the nature of training as a motivating force. First of all, training enables people to do their job better. Secondly, people like to do the things they are good at.

There are other subsidiary factors: training opens the door to advancement; proper training will include information on how the individual may relate his personal goals to the goals of the organization; special recognition is inherent in selection for training; satisfactions stem from receiving the training. All of these can be said to create in the individual a desire or lack of desire. Where effectively conducted, training will create a desire to do the best that is in him.

The advantages of training are well-recognized at all levels of local government. Of the 21 largest cities in the United States, four have executive development programs and four others plan to set them up in the near future. Eighteen universities offer similar courses for state and local governments. The International City Managers' Association has one of the best-known management training programs for city officials on a correspondence basis.

Most municipalities are new to the field. More than 70 per cent of the cities with management development programs of any kind have inaugurated them since 1954. While there has been considerable controversy about the concrete value of management training and executive development in industry, the evidence in government programs seems to indicate there is--at the very least--substantial stimulation of the participants.

Pay Scales. Money, as a motivating force, has tended to be downgraded in importance in recent years. The same holds true of fringe benefits. This is not intended to minimize the effects of money. Rather it stresses that money is but one of the forces that influence behavior.

Just what does money do? Studies have shown that once the necessities of life are accounted for, money takes on a psychological influence. It tends to become a prestige factor--placing a person at a point in the organizational hierarchy. The effect on a city can be substantial. Imagine the reaction among \$6,000 a year department heads when, in order to start a planning program, the city has to spend a minimum of \$8,000 for a planning director. Even then, the planning director may be in his late twenties, while the department heads are veteran city employees.

Pay policies have not been without drawbacks. The emphasis on "equal pay for equal work" has tended to leave little room for rewarding really superior performance. By its very nature, individual financial incentive can be given only in those jobs where production can be easily measured. It also tends to concentrate the individual's attention on his own work and not on how his production fits into the organization. Lastly, incentive pay may not really reward; it may be too small to reward the extra effort, or may not be worth higher production if fellow workers get sore about it. All in all, studies show that individual money incentives work best when the individuals are engaged in individual operations.

Governments have recognized--as far as bottom grades and middle management is concerned--that pay scales must be kept near those offered by private employers, both for economic and psychological reasons. However, they have not been able to utilize incentives like bonuses and profit-sharing, frequently found in private employment.

However, there have been two programs in limited use in government that have the effect of providing incentives as well as recognition of the employee:

1. Suggestion Awards. Both small and large cities have adopted suggestion award systems, although in smaller communities the tendency is to provide certificates of recognition rather than financial rewards. The experiments in government seem to indicate that cash awards are required if the program is to be successful. (These systems are valuable also because they open a channel of communication by which management learns of discontent it would otherwise not know about, and because they tend to direct attention to the need to improve city operations.)

2. Merit Pay Increase. In most personnel classification systems increases in pay within the pay range tend to be automatic upon completion of the required time in grade. However, there has been a limited attempt to increase variation of the merit pay program. Government officials generally will await with interest the outcome of a current Army "proficiency pay" program for enlisted men. Under this program enlisted men may earn an additional \$30 per month if they have "demonstrated outstanding effectiveness in any assigned skill irrespective of criticality." It is also designed to attract and retain personnel in occupations of critical importance to the service.

Employee Unions. Municipal policies toward membership in labor unions are made complex by a number of things such as state laws, community attitudes toward unions, more or less dogmatic theory, and so on. It is a common opinion among administrators that a sound personnel program makes unions unnecessary at best and destructive at worst. This opinion may very well overlook several points:

1. Desires Leading to Union Organization. These normally are the hope of gaining more pay and better working conditions; the desire for help in securing favorable decisions on matters affecting their individual welfare in the employment relationship; and the desire for association and recognition arising from natural inclinations.¹⁰ These are the kinds of satisfactions that may not derive from the job itself.

2. Union Organization as a Means of Communication. One of the real difficulties for administrators is obtaining "feed back" of reliable reactions, comments, proposals, and criticisms from employees. Organization of employees can help make communication an effective two-way process.

3. Inherent Difficulties in Dealing with Employees as Individuals. In requiring that employees deal with management on an individual basis, the administrator must be willing to consider all employee viewpoints individually and to draw a consensus. Can this be done because of the sheer number of people involved? There is some reason to believe that individual employees are more willing to use political influence than to work with the administrator. Certainly attempts to organize employees under official supervision, guidance, or encouragement have been met by employee distrust, thus reducing the effectiveness of "company" unions.

Recognition of unions, even where legal, does not solve all these problems of course. For example, personnel policies must be framed to cover not only union members but those who do not belong. Uniformity, with its implications of fair administration, is essential in any personnel program.

The Committee on Labor Relations of Governmental Employees of the American Bar Association has said that unilateral actions in the area of labor organization by legislators or by administrators will heighten misunderstanding if there is no opportunity for the employee organizations to present their views.¹¹ It urged that every public jurisdiction carefully review its laws covering

¹⁰The relation of social groups to motivation is discussed by Likert and Seashore, *op. cit.*

¹¹American Bar Association. *Report of the Committee on Labor Relations of Governmental Employees* (Chicago: The Association, 1956).

conditions of service of public employees to be sure they meet present-day concepts of sound employee relationships.

This Bar group recommendation for sympathetic reconsideration of the position of government relation to its employees is not intended to counsel uncritical acceptance of all labor practices advocated by organized labor. Union opposition to civil service testing of its members, to automation in public service, to performance rating, to methods designed to evaluate and supervise work operations, all are among the areas in which unions have created unwarranted pressures for preferential treatment.

Leadership and Motivation

It is not enough to be the boss. The supervisor must also be a genuine leader. The difference between position, on the one hand, and status on the other. A person serves as leader only if the group accepts his leadership voluntarily. Acceptance depends in large part on whether they admire and respect him.

This has significance for the concept of authority, best exemplified by the observation, "The boss may not be always right but he is always the boss." Experience has shown that orders from the boss often are far from enough to get the job done properly. This runs counter to previous assumptions: that leadership and position could be equated; and that leaders are born, not made. Under these assumptions, a leader type could be identified (it was thought) and the problem of selection became one of identification.

But it didn't work out that way. Observation made it clear that when two people had the same qualities the results of their work groups usually differed. As a result of further studies, it has been concluded (tentatively at least) that leadership depends on a situation and is limited to that situation. People, time, and the place all combine to produce a particular leadership. One result is the conclusion that leadership can be learned.

Leadership and Authority. Authority is a mechanism for coordination and control. Authority creates a temptation to use it, and those in authority must be certain that it be aimed at the organization's goals rather than their personal desire for influence. Authority normally is used to restrict individual behavior and therefore blocks or frustrates people. So much so that occasionally some people even see a superior's pat on the back as a threat of authority.

Authority is easy to use. It demands little of the supervisor who really doesn't have to know very much about his subordinates. But it also produces strange by-products. Expecting to be assured for inactivity, they work merely to look busy. Authoritarianism strengthens the cohesion of the informal group, with the superior left outside. At worst it leads to passive resistance, taking the form of doing what the boss tells them to do, and no more.

This does not mean that there is anything inherently bad in autocratic leadership. It may be absolutely necessary when there is a need for prompt and strong action, when the organization is exposed to what might be called an emergency situation.

Leadership and Direction. Most organizations are not called on to meet only emergencies. Time is not the predominant factor in most decision-making.

An experiment involving two adult recreation groups has been cited as indicating what can happen when people take part in the group decision-making that affects them. It was found that in these groups with democratic leadership: (1) the number of persons attracted to participate was doubled; (2) the participants became more interested and enthusiastic; (3) the work done was more efficiently organized; (4) the work output was of higher quality; and (5) the morale of the group was higher.

Studies also showed that, in an industrial environment, workers could be motivated to greater production with less conflict if they are involved in planning the changes in procedures that will affect them. It has been demonstrated that participation doesn't work when used as a method of manipulation--that is, to get workers to do something that management already wants to do. Participation is effective only when it is sincere and based on respect for the real contributions that employees can make.

Leadership and Environment. The primary contribution of leadership to the work group is the social and psychological climate created. It is the leader who, to a great degree, shapes this environment. How leaders affect their groups is hard to pin down, yet certainly the effects are felt, favorably or adversely.

The supervisor must remember that the people working under him are unwilling to give up their individuality simply because they are part of an organization. The individual's desire to feel important — to really count — is also a vital part of the work climate. It is the supervisor who has the responsibility for creating this sense of importance. This can rarely be done when the supervisor has an emphasis on production to the extent that all other considerations are put aside or ignored. This underscores the importance of the supervisor's attitude towards his responsibility. He must decide what comes first when the chips are down.

Most supervisors fall between the extremes of production domination on one hand and total concern for employee sensibilities on the other. But there are times, inevitably, when any supervisor will have to choose between the interests of his subordinates and production goals. In these situations he walks a tightrope, because (it seems clear from research) a production-centered attitude on the part of the supervisor has an erosive effect on the individual's sense of importance, and consequently, on his production.

However, research also shows that long-range balance is more important than individual choices between "the men" or "production." Rensis Likert has reported that low production, low pressure, and low morale appear to be closely associated.¹² Up to a point productivity increases with greater pressure and rising morale. But as pressure becomes very great, morale drops sharply while production increases only slightly. He reports that this collapse of morale is associated with hostility, resentment, and an unfavorable attitude which all show up in motivation.

These studies lead to a general conclusion that there must be both in the effective supervisor — concern for employees and for production.

Participation and Motivation

Participation in the decision-making process has been mentioned in this report as one of the ways in which employees can be motivated. Findings in this area will be considered in somewhat greater detail in this section.

Standards and Norms. Standards are what management expects. Norms are the expectations of the workers. Usually there is a difference between the two, and sometimes the gap is substantial. Likert, in his studies referred to earlier, came to the conclusion (as others have done) that most workers can produce several times what they do produce. "Norms typically fall far short of possibility," he said.

Perhaps a more familiar statement of the situation is Parkinson's First Law: The amount of work fills up the amount of time available to do it in.¹³ There is plenty of evidence that the overstaffed unit is not as an efficient producer as the slightly understaffed organization. "Give the busy man the work to do and it will get done," is a common expression generally accepted as valid.

Valid up to a point, that is. For when the assigned work becomes impossible to do in the time allotted, or when the tension inherent in the overload persists for too long a time, something has to give.

While it is easiest to observe the standard-norm phenomena in an industrial production situation, it is not usually apparent in the municipal situation. What the patrolman sees and does not see while on patrol, how a librarian fills time between checkouts at the circulation desk, what the recreation director does to salvage used equipment, are among the many daily routine activities influenced by the emotional workings of standards and norms. Clearly, human relations as applied by the supervisor, must bridge the gap between the standard and the norm in the basic life of the work group.

¹²Rensis Likert, "Developing Patterns in Management," in *Strengthening Management for the New Technology* (New York: American Management Association, 1955).

¹³C. Northcote Parkinson. *Parkinson's Law*. (Boston: Houghton Mifflin Co., 1957).

Participation in Decision-Making. Thus, people tend to be high producers when they feel they are a part of the organization. How then shall we achieve this sense of involvement?

Where time permits (the non-emergency situation) the answer lies in participation in decision-making, participation in establishing goals, participation in changing working conditions, and so on.

This is not simply a matter of "talking things over." *The group approach to participation requires the supervisor to be trained in its purposes and techniques.*

Adoption of this method takes time and patience. The employees must be participants, and therefore the supervisor must gain their confidence, especially if he has been making one-man decisions for a substantial length of time. The supervisor must recognize that this approach is effective primarily when the members of the group are continually exposed to new experience. They must attain confidence in themselves and insight into their role in the organization.

The techniques of participation vary somewhat with the nature of the group involved. But essentially the system operates so that members play a part in setting realistic goals for the work unit.¹⁴ As work progresses they are called in to give their ideas as to why they have not met the goals or why the goals were not set high enough. This leads to a revision of the goals but more importantly, to a self-evaluation on the part of each participant. Each knows as well as anyone else just how much he has contributed to the group effort. Likert observes:

The trend in America generally, in our schools, in our homes, and in our communities is toward giving the individual greater freedom and initiative.... In my opinion, the cultural changes occurring in the United States will, in the next few decades, make people expect even greater opportunities for initiative and participation than is now the case.¹⁵

Drawbacks? The domineering supervisor is likely to find participation personally unsatisfactory. He will find it to be time-consuming. He will overlook the fact that there is a strong possibility that the work group will more than make up the time later. For example, the supervisor does not usually have to be concerned with the details of carrying out the group-reached decisions when the supervisor uses the dictatorial approach. Further, fewer corrections need to be made because the key people involved in shaping the decision are now implementing it.

It is important to recognize that a group decision carried out in a half-hearted manner is a hasty decision. Performance results are the principal criteria in the long run. Therefore, participation in decision-making must be real, extending if possible to all members of the group.

Human Relations Practices for Supervisors

This report now turns to specific steps, beyond those already mentioned, which a supervisor may take to put the "human relations" approach into effect. There are many simple and elementary practices which help to motivate people. No one of the following by itself will bring about an increase in motivation, but as a group they are important.

The Over-all View. In general the effective supervisor or manager takes a positive philosophy toward fellow employees. If, in general, he treats all employees with human dignity things will go further. The real art in understanding the other person is the art of putting yourself in the other person's shoes.

1. Treat People as People. Too often we forget to take a personal interest in the other person and see him merely as a cog in the organization. This is one of the easiest ways to put a barrier between you and your organization. Sometimes we think we are under too much pressure to do this. However, we should take the time so that we do not neglect people. This will directly affect future production.

¹⁴ Rensis Likert, *op. cit.*, p. 44.

¹⁵ See Rensis Likert, "Motivational Approach to Management Development," *Harvard Business Review*, July-August,

2. Consistency Counts. It is easier to get along with people when you are consistent and everyone knows what to expect. If you keep on changing your mind the organization is continually in a turmoil. To be consistent you should make decisions in the first place and look ahead to all the implications. Therefore, before making a decision, decide what you want to do, get all the facts, analyze the facts, and study the implication of the new policy.

3. Be Considerate of the Other Fellow's Viewpoint. Maybe there is a genuine basis for disagreement which you cannot bridge. Stick to your guns if you think that it will do the greatest service to your organization. But first listen with a real attempt to understand his viewpoint.

4. Use Questions To Persuade. One of the surest ways to make the other fellow feel important is to ask questions; even better than asking a man for information is asking a man for an opinion. By asking questions we sometimes indirectly place ideas in the mind. We seem to be asking for information and consideration rather than telling him what to do. One person said the six most important words are "I admit I made a mistake." The five most important words are: "I am proud of you." The four most important words are: "What is your opinion?" The three most important words are: "If you please." The two most important words are: "Thank you." The single most important word is: "We."

5. Build Up Pride. Everyone wants to feel that he is wanted and is doing a worthwhile job. Too often we take the good for granted. As long as people perform their work satisfactorily we forget their individual importance. Don't forget that your employees are important, and don't let them forget it. Employees with pride in themselves and their work will do a better job.

6. The Executive Sets the Example. Unfortunately some people use the old saying "Do as I say, not as I do." When you are irregular in your habits, late for appointments, or careless about facts, you can expect the same thing from your subordinates. The leader sets the tone for the organization by his example.

7. Keep Them Informed. Employees want to know what is going on in their organization. Decisions affecting the organization and them personally should be passed along by superiors when possible.

8. Criticize Privately. Public criticism is a form of punishment which will gain nothing except the hatred of the person you are criticizing. Constructive criticism should be done in private to give a person a chance to save face. You can usually gain good will and cooperation by this type of method.

9. Praise in Public. Unlike criticism, praise should be in public. Before praising make sure that it is deserved and that all the affected parties receive praise. If praising is superficial, people soon find out about it. Also, if you praise too often it becomes unimpressive.

Rewarding Good Behavior. To be effective any type of reward should be clearly and closely tied to need satisfactions.

1. Plain Talk Is Not Enough. It takes two people to communicate, the sender and the receiver. Both must be functioning properly to get the message across. Don't make the mistake of thinking because you know something that somebody else knows it too. Sometimes semantics cause a problem, and other times a person is just not listening. In many cases people are reluctant to say that they don't understand something. Let them repeat it back to you to make sure your communication has gotten across.

2. Be a Good Listener. Some people are, or feel they are, too busy to listen to the other person. Others will give you the courtesy of letting you talk when in reality they are not listening. Some will interrupt during your conversation. Another type is the one that jumps to conclusions. A supervisor can become more effective by being a good listener. In some cases employees do not want answers to problems but only a chance to speak them out to clarify their own minds and make their own decisions. In other cases, through listening, you learn more about the employees. A few of the positive rules for good listening are:

Face the speaker; watch the speaker.
Listen for ideas and underlying feelings.
Allow for your own bias.

Keep your mind on what the speaker is saying.
Take in the other person's viewpoint before you speak.
Make a conscious effort to evaluate the logic and meaning of what you hear.
Don't judge ideas by the speaker's appearance or delivery.
Don't interrupt immediately if you think his statement is wrong.
Don't try to have the last word.

3. Learn How To Give a Reprimand. A few basic rules to follow in giving reprimands are:

Be sure that the reprimand is deserved.
Remember that workers are individuals.
Never lose your temper when reprimanding a worker.
Keep the process private.
Face the issue.

4. Promptness Is a Form of Courtesy. People who deal with you always expect promptice. Lack of attention to their requests, even if there is a pardonable reason, leaves a bad session. Any request from employees should be answered or acknowledged within a certain limit, usually not more than three days. Don't let a good operation be considered poor because lack of this type of courtesy.

5. Create a Climate of Participation. A good administrator will create a climate of partici-n. Employees respond better when they are given an opportunity to participate in planning and ramming their work.

6. Don't Sugar-coat. Putting off bad news is not as effective as frankness. Honest com-ication wins confidence.

7. Don't Question Motives. When a person has made a mistake and has to be corrected, it tter if you do not question his motives. If you assume that a person does not want to do a good nd say so, you have put that person on the defensive right away. Correcting mistakes is neces-but don't accuse the person of not wanting to do a good job.

8. Use Mistakes for Training. Sometimes it is better to overlook some trivial mistakes on part of another person. When a person makes a mistake he usually feels worse than anybody. n continually criticize mistakes being made, criticism looses its corrective value. Mistakes ld be corrected when they become repitious or when some learning can be employed along with criticism. Perhaps the old Chinese proverb is good; the one that says, "Fool me once, shame u. Fool me twice, shame on me."

9. Accentuate the Positive. It is very easy to see the mistakes that other people make. How-if you constantly look for mistakes, you will not find out the many good things that a person is . If some supervisors would spend more time on finding out the good job the employees are , they would get a much higher level of performance.

10. Ask for Help. It is a good thing to ask other people for help whether you need their advice t. If a supervisor tries to do all the thinking, he is wasting a great deal of brainpower. Not s asking advice good for getting ideas but it also makes the other person feel important. The le in the organization should know more about the detail of their job than anyone else. You also e greater cooperation by asking for their advice. It should be remembered that you should re-the right to make final decisions.

11. Keep Promises. Don't try to be a "good Joe" by promising more than you can actually er. Momentarily, a false promise might give a person some false hopes. However, when no ery is made there will be a tremendous sag in morale. Think of all the implications before g a promise and then make sure that delivery is made.

12. Use Authority Sparingly. Sometimes the use of authority seems to be the easiest and quickest way of getting something done; however, in the long run it might not work that way. The question is, how do people act when you are not around? The art of leadership is getting people to want to do a good job.

13. Be Cheerful. People prefer to work for someone who is cheerful and pleasant to work with. If we forget about ourselves and think about the other fellow we not only make ourselves feel better, but we also make him feel better.

14. Never Pass the Buck. Nobody deserves a brushoff. If you don't know the answer to a question, find out and tell the person who asked.

15. Be a Member of the Team. Remember that any progress is group effort. Your success or failure to a large degree will depend upon the efforts of others. Therefore teamwork becomes essential. Also, people like to be identified as members of a team.

16. Give Credit Where Credit Is Due. When someone comes to you with a new idea or proposal, make sure that he receives credit for this. Nothing is more stifling to future suggestions than to take the credit for all of the suggestions in your group. We perhaps should use the slogan, "There is no limit to the amount of good a man can do if he doesn't care who gets the credit."

17. Don't Play Favorites. It is important that the supervisor be fair in his relations with all employees. He should not have or give the appearance of having any favorites.

18. Make Sure He Knows What Is Expected of Him. It is important that a person know what is expected of him. This is necessary to correct any false expectations or aspirations the person might have.

19. Make Sure He Knows the Job. It is important before putting a person out on his own that he knows his job. This takes adequate training. A good idea is to let a person explain back to you what he understands his job is.

20. Delegate Responsibility. When you delegate the right to make decisions you have to delegate the necessary responsibility and authority. It should be remembered however, that you cannot delegate accountability. If mistakes are made, be sure to back up the employees. If you find out in the long run you are wrong, you will have to take back some of your delegated responsibilities.

21. Let Them Make Decisions. People respond better when they participate in decision-making. However, before they can make good decisions they have to know where they stand, know the background facts, and feel confident that their decisions will be respected. A person who cannot delegate the right to make decisions either has no respect for the judgment of other persons or has a bloated idea of his own importance.

22. Don't Rehash. If a person makes a mistake or does something wrong and has to be criticized, it is often necessary to discuss the problem. However, no good is done by constantly bringing up previous mistakes.

23. Build Up Importance of Work. Everyone likes to think that their job is important. It is the job of the good supervisor to let everyone know the importance of their work. It is helped by showing them where they fit in the organization. Everyone counts in making the organization tick.

24. Admit Mistakes. No one is immune from making mistakes, including the boss. It somehow has a tempering effect upon the employees when the boss makes a mistake. Also, by admitting the mistake you increase the morale of the group by a show of your fairness.

25. Take Time Out. Sometimes a supervisor feels he is too busy or important to take time out to talk to the employees. Other people like to feel important too. Take time to listen to them.

26. Loyalty Is Important. Try to develop the spirit of loyalty on your own and the employee's part. This means trying to look at the good side of the organization. This does not mean that you do not allow criticism, however.

27. Allow People To Differ and Criticize. It is a sterile organization that will not allow the employees to differ or criticize. It is important to allow people to criticize to get the best possible n. Once a decision has been made, however, you cannot allow individuals to openly differ.

28. Give In Graciously. A great deal of time and effort is often spent in accepting advice and nting permission to do things on the part of others. This half-hearted approach has a demoral- g effect. In some cases when you feel you are going to have to do a thing, why not do it gr- usly? In other cases when you feel you don't want to do it, you should hold your ground.

29. First Things First. A great many times we have more work to do than we can get out. refore it is necessary to put a priority on work. A good supervisor will weigh the relative ad- tage and necessity of various work projects and see that first things are done first.

30. Don't Oversupervise. One of the worst things you can do is oversupervise. The other son is given no chance to take any initiative or do anything on his own. With oversupervision a son will never develop to his full potential. An oversupervised person will not know what to do en his supervisor is not available.

31. Know Employees as People. People are a great deal more than cogs in the organization. y like to feel that people are interested and concerned about them. Without getting nosy, take interest in the personal lives of the employees.

32. Be Prepared for Problems. Problems are going to come up from time to time. A goodervisor will be prepared for these problems. In such a way he will command a great deal more pect from employees.

33. Don't Joke about Other Peoples' Problems. Although a problem of another person might comical and unimportant to you, don't handle it in a joking way. To a person with the problem s real. A great deal of damage can be done by trying to make the other person see that his prob- is trivial. Also, it is usually not good policy to try to use a joking approach when counseling her person. Be sympathetic.

Conclusions

Major changes in management's approach to motivation of employees have occurred over the rs. New viewpoints have been offered at various times, and some appear to have been fads. Yet human relations concepts of recent years have demonstrated both the failures of past approaches the potentials of new ones. It has been the purpose of this report to relate these new develop- ts — and their implications — to the lower-level work group.

Unfortunately, practically all of the research that has been done has been in the industrial or ness field. But there is little reason to believe that the findings cannot be applied to govern- tal organizations, at least in those situations where the structure and operation of government business are comparable.

If it has not produced a fixed program of supervisory behavior for everyone to follow, the arch nevertheless has revealed a pattern of practices which appear successful in motivating, er directly or indirectly, people to greater efforts. Keeping in mind the necessity for a balance een productive needs and the apparent and underlying needs of the individual employees, the rvisor may use these practices as guides for his relationships with his subordinates.

Note: This report was prepared by Robert L. Brunton, assistant director, and Ned L. Wall, member, the International City Managers' Association.

